THE FARMER & GARDENER;

AND LIVE-STOCK BREEDER & MANAGER.

CONDUCTED BY I. IRVINE HITCHCOCK, AND ISSUED EVERY TUESDAY FROM THE AMERICAN FARMER ESTABLISHMENT, AT $5 PER ANNUM, IN ADVANCE

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☞When this is done, 50 cents worth of any kind of seeds on hand will be delivered or sent to the order of the subscriber with his receipt.

American Farmer Establishment.

BALTIMORE: TUESDAY, OCTOBER 28, 1834.

MORUS MULTICAULIS.—The more we become acquainted with this tree the better we like it.—Last March we cut off even with the ground every tree of it that we had left after our winter's sales—for the purpose of propagating it. The number was we think about 60 or 70. From these we have now ready for sale, being from three to four feet high, about sixteen hundred trees, all raised this year from the *bodies and limbs* of the one year old trees mentioned. But the growth from the old roots is astonishing—from two to eight shoots have grown from each of them to the height of from six to nine feet, every one of which as well as of the young trees first mentioned, is loaded with leaves of the most luxuriant growth, measuring from 10 or 11 inches by 13 or 14 downwards to half those dimensions, and of as bright and dark a green now as they were in June. One of the peculiarities of this tree appears to be the continuance till very late in the fall of the unrivalled green of its foliage. This induces the expectation that it will yet be found a most valuable shade tree for either the street or the lawn. In short, unless we are greatly mistaken in its character, it will yet be found one of the most valuable acquisitions to our country which has ever reached it from the celestial empire, not excepting "*Julia Foochee ching-chang-king*, daughter of *Hong-wang-tzang-tzee-king*, a distinguished citizen of the celestial empire, residing in the suburbs of Canton," who has just arrived at New York to show her "darling" little feet only three inches long.

WASHINGTON, N. C. 1834, October.

To the Editor of the Farmer and Gardener.

Dear Sir.—My purpose is not either to trouble you or to make myself conspicuous as a farmer, but to inform myself in matters with which I am but slightly acquainted; and as your paper is intended to furnish such information rather than discuss matters in which "homespun coats" like myself, take no interest, I am thus forward in troubling you; taking this opportunity of offering my thanks for the very able reply to my last.

I see in your last number, some observations on a kind of corn, which may be eaten (or kept for that purpose) through the winter; I have some of this corn—having procured a handful of an old Dutch gentleman, in Schenectady, N. Y., but it being a bad year for corn, I got only a small quantity in return. Can you inform me whether its qualities are superior for feeding, or is it only fit for the table? from the fact of its being rendered soft in winter, I should suppose it would be preferable to the common Indian corn for feeding.

But the inquiry which I chiefly wish to make at present, is relative to manuring with clover. I have about 100 acres of land which will now bring me about 20 bushels of corn to the acre, it can be made to bring almost double, and its situation is such that I wish it to do so as soon as possible. I wish to know what kind of clover seed, how much to the acre, when and how to sow them, and in what manner to lime and plaister it, and how the ground should be prepared to receive the seed, when to cut the grass, and when to turn in the sod. If you or some of your correspondents will oblige me, by a detailed account of the whole process necessary, I will promise you no more trouble, and "should you travel my way," a good bowl of milk, &c. from my own premises, as long as you wish to stay, besides Gama grass or oats for your horse. Yours, &c.

H. C. HOYT.

To our friend's enquiry in regard to the Sugar corn, we reply unhesitatingly that it would disappoint his hopes as a field crop.

In regard to the use of clover, we do not feel very competent to give particular directions—we will however do what we can this week, and will shortly, perhaps in our next number, publish something from a more competent hand. We know that the practice of manuring with clover is in general favor among farmers, especially at the South. The kind most used is the common red, but the northern or tall sapling clover is by some preferred. The quantity generally prescribed for an acre is about four quarts. It may be sown either in the fall or winter or early in the spring—either alone or with grain. When it is fairly above the ground, one bushel of ground plaister should be sown broadcast to the acre. To lime or not to lime—this is a question, and a correct answer to it must depend on the quality—that is, the relative proportions of the constituent parts of the soil, which would be best ascertained by an analysis of it chemically.

We hardly need say that to answer communications such as the above, is not considered by us a trouble, or a task, but as business directly in our line. We thank our kind friend for his offer of hospitality, and assure him that if we pass his way, (and stranger things happen every year) we shall do ourselves the pleasure of paying our respects to him.

☞We are requested to state that the report of the committee of the Horticultural Society of Maryland, in relation to the late exhibition, will be published in our next number.

MARYLAND HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY.

Saturday, October 25, 1834.

The following articles were exhibited:—

By Henry Schroeder, Esq. a large turnip rooted Beet, weighing 7 lbs. raised by Dr. Goldsborough, of Frederick, Md.

Aaron Burr presented a very fine Egg Plant, measuring 20 inches in circumference.

Capt. Wm. Partlow presented a fine specimen of Sugar Cane.

Gideon B. Smith exhibited a specimen of the fruit of the Maclura, or Osage Orange, with *perfect seed*, produced by Gen. T. M. Forman of Cecil. It is believed that this is the first instance of the production of fruit with perfect seed in this part of the country.

Mr. Henry Schroeder presented specimens of the large Spanish Chestnut. The seed was introduced by Mr. La Roi from France; to this gentleman Maryland is indebted for many of her fine fruits and flowers.

Mrs. Emory exhibited a specimen of Egyptian Corn, raised from seed sent home by Mr. Mendes I. Cohen, direct from Egypt.

Mrs. Geo. H. Keerl exhibited the following Dahlias, viz: Squibs pure yellow, Lord John Russell, Purple Globe, Don Pedro, &c.

Mr. Samuel Feast exhibited the following Dahlias, viz: Levick's Incomparable, (two specimens, one deep crimson, the other crimson tipt with white—the most perfectly variegated Dahlia known,) Dunlap's Royal Purple, Squib's pure yellow, Roi des Rouge, and Gen. Marion, a fine crimson velvet.

EXPORT OF WOOL.—There have been some shipments of the finest American wool, both from this port and Philadelphia, for England and France. It is thought that a profit will be realized upon the shipment.—*N. Y. Jour. Com.*

THE FARMER.

From the (Edinburg) Quarterly Journal of Agriculture

On providing schools for the instruction of farmers' sons in the physical sciences.—By William Hawkins.—(Concluded from page 195.)

ACCOUNTS.

In a business embracing so many particulars as farming, it is essential to be able to distinguish the profit and loss upon each. Nothing is more easy or more common than for a man who keeps no accounts, to continue for a series of years, to lose money upon some particular department without knowing it, or, which is almost as bad, to employ his time and capital in less profitable speculations, when he might have applied them to such as were more so. A farmer grows many sorts of crops, and keeps several species of animals—breeding some and buying others, and uses many kinds of manure. Assuming that he has a general profit of 10 per cent at the year's end, how is he to tell whether all the branches of his business have contributed rateably to this result—how, I say, is he to tell this without accounts? The cost of one acre of corn, for example, is by no means self-evident; it is "compounded of many simples, extracted from many objects,"—rent, tithe, taxes, seed and tillage—horses' keep and man's keep—rates for the poor—the church and the highways, and so with every other crop. Suppose now, that in the case of oats, all the items of expenditure accurately set down, shall amount to 5*l.* 15*s.* annually, and that the crop shall sell for 5*l.* 10*s.* Upon forty acres, here would be a loss of 10*l.* a year; but without setting down the several items which compose the cost, and adding them together, how is a man to tell within 5*s.* what his acre of oats cost him? He may know that his acre cost him *about* 5 or 6*l.*, but in this very *about* is the *essence* of the mischief. About 5*l.* or 6*l.* may mean either 5*l.* or 6*l.*; now if the selling price were 5*l.* 10*s.*, the former supposition would give a profit, and the latter a loss, of 20*l.* a year; and thus any man may, and multitudes do, continue to the end of their lives carrying on branches of business by which they lose money unconsciously. The observations apply to manures brought on a farm. Price, carriage, labor, &c. all reckoned, bonedust may be 5*s.* an acre dearer or cheaper than stable dung,—but without counting up the cost of each item that forms the price, a man may be ignorant of this difference, and he may lose 5*s.* on an acre. It is by a few shillings gained here and saved there, that a farmer makes his profit. It is no exaggerated estimate to suppose, that these petty items may often make a difference of 10 per cent. at the year's end, and that so, one man may make a living on the same farm, where another would fail. A knowledge of these details therefore is useful, and is to be acquired by a system of accounts.—Nearly allied to, if not identical with accounts, is a facility at all the common operations of arithmetic, and the storing in the mind of certain arithmetical results, which may serve as the basis of future calculations. The multiplication table is a familiar example of the vast importance of this prepared and portable knowledge. The commonest operations of arithmetic could scarcely be carried on without the intuitive readiness with which the product of any two of the numbers under twelve have been made to occur to the mind; but the principle is capable of an application much wider than it has received. The proportions existing between the numerical parts into which the year, the acre, the pound sterling, and the ton weight are divided, might be impressed on the mind, and, as it were, *burnt in* by continual repetition; as, for example, the weight of an acre of turnips, is a fact which it is desirable to know, and which is ascertained in five minutes, if we bear in mind, that, for every pound on the square yard, there are 2 tons 3 cwt. 24lbs. on the acre; and we should, in a similar manner, be able to tell without effort, what breadth of turnips would keep a sheep or a cow for a year. The number of inches in a square or cubic yard, and of yards in an acre, the number of pounds in a ton, and the proportion existing between the days in the year, and the common subdivisions of our measures of weight, capacity, superfices and value, suggest themselves as instances. A number of these facts and relations being well impressed on the recollection of boys at school, they would come in after-life to the calculations necessary to establish knowledge, instead of guesses respecting the affairs of their farms, so well prepared as to make that occur intuitively and without labor, which men, not so prepared, could only come at with much labor, or perhaps not at all. There is scarcely any thing easier than the use of logarithms, but we are certainly not all qualified to have invented them.

There still remains other sciences from which instances as frequent might be drawn. Vegetable Physiology, Meteorology, Geology, Hydrostatics; but it is not by the endless multiplication of instances that attention can be enchained or conviction adduced, but a sample is intended not a catalogue. A nosegay may give some idea of the riches of the parterre, and has the advantage of being more portable.

But besides enriching the mind with a store of knowledge positively and actually useful, a course of education such as I have suggested, would, by the inculcation of sound principles, defend the mind from the inroads of many senseless prejudices; for the ignorant are, as has been before hinted, the most inveterate theorists. They will never be satisfied without assigning some cause for the phenomena which they see, and that assigned cause is often not only false, but absurd; and, as the remedies resorted to are mutually correspondent with the supposed cause of disease, the latter is likely to remain undisturbed, and a new disease to be introduced by the operation of the intended remedy. Apple trees have been cut down, from its having been unjustly supposed that they bred certain insects which did mischief to the corn. Kirby and Spence give an instance of a meadow in which the grass was eaten up by grubs; the rooks were busy in digging for these grubs, of which they happened to be fond, but the owner thought it was the rooks that eat the grass, and he therefore shot them. It is not stated whether he also killed his cat to preserve his cheese from the mice. Bradley, an agriculturalist famous in his day, accounted for the blight in the following original manner: He supposed it to be occasioned by insects which came from Nova Zombla, "*where the cold is intense enough to give life to these small creatures.*" The late Mr. Bakewell theorized himself into thinking, that dung should be dried into the fineness of a pinch of snuff,—"an opinion," says the author of the New Farmers' Calendar, "which I have ever thought absurd and unprofitable in the extreme," and I believe most people will think so too; but even the author of that Calendar is guilty of the following heresy:—He says "It would be wonderful did we not know of the constant recurrence of such contrarieties in agricultural practice, that lime has been often found of the utmost advantage and perfectly noxious by different cultivators, on soils of *a perfectly similar nature*," which I think "may hardly be, Master Shallow."

A scientific education would, moreover remove the great gulph which appears to separate every part of the country from every other part; things may be known and done for ages in one place, without their being heard of in another not a hundred miles off. Potatoes were brought into Ireland about 1610, and did not arrive in Cantire, which is a very sandy soil, and where they have since succeeded so well, in less than a century and a half. They had reached Lancashire forty years before they were much planted about London, and then considered as rarities, without any conception of the utility that might arise from bringing them into common use. The cultivation of the turnip was introduced about 1670, but at first it seems to have been overlooked and even neglected for many years, and then again proposed, recommended, and explained with better success.

To put the argument into a different form, let us advert to the introduction of Swedish turnips. Less than 35 years ago, the author of the New Farmers' Calendar was obliged to quote an account of them from the Nottinghamshire Report, "being without experience in the culture of this root." And in another place he says, "I hear his Grace, the Duke of Bedford, has from 20 to 30 acres of the Ruta Baga at Woburn." Now, if this crop had made its way no faster than potatoes, it would not have been heard of over a quarter of the kingdom yet, and there are many farms to whose improved system of husbandry they are essential. It is stated in the history of the Royal Society, that the value of sea-shells as a manure had been known in Cornwall at least as early as 1675, and the process followed had been published in the transactions of the Royal Society; and yet, in 1744, the use of them was so little understood in Suffolk, that a farmer who found it out by accident, soon realized a fortune by the discovery.

It has already been hinted that the instruction here proposed could be given only at school.—Grown men scarcely ever have resolution enough to carry them through the fatigue of studying fresh sciences. Either distinct schools might be established, or the existing schools might be modified. An intelligent farmer, who is already in the habit of taking pupils, might be provided with a scientific tutor. In the morning the boys might employ themselves as they do now, in personally observing and assisting in the affairs of the farm; and in the evening they would receive from their tutor instruction in Chemistry, Botany, the structure

and diseases of cattle, the knowledge of insects and of the weather, natural philosophy and book-keeping. I suppose a couple of years well employed would be sufficient to give a young man a competent knowledge of these matters. A difficulty might present itself in the first instance, in finding tutors properly qualified; but that would be at the beginning only, for the pupils of this year would be the tutors of the next, and so a perpetual succession would be provided. People are sly of new things; but a father in choosing a school for his son would naturally say, (if the charge was not increased,) whether these things be of any use or not, we shall get them for nothing; the boys will receive the usual instruction *and this besides*, be it worth little or much; and, therefore, by all means let us have it.

The only means by which there is any hope for accomplishing these purposes is, the formation of a comprehensive Agricultural Society; and it is a little surprising, that among the innumerable societies now existing in London, there is none specially dedicated to the improvement of Agriculture. There are many provincial farming societies, probably all useful more or less; but there are important purposes which they are not qualified to effect. Therefore, I propose the formation of a central society, to be established in London, for the improvement of the agriculture of the kingdom, which might be called the "British Society of Agriculture," with the following objects:

To provide a suitable building, or rooms, for holding a library, museum, &c.

To hold meetings once a fortnight, at certain seasons of the year.

To procure from the most eminent scientific men of the day, lectures on the application of the various sciences to agriculture, which might afterwards be printed.

To correspond with foreign societies, and to form a centre of communication for those established in this country.

To take in all the periodical and other scientific works applicable to agriculture, published in any part of the world, and to print and circulate, in a cheap form, monthly digests of whatever useful matter they might contain.

But, principally, to establish throughout the kingdom, schools for the instruction of farmers' sons in the elements of the Physical Sciences.

[From the New York Farmer and American Gardener's Magazine.]

VEGECULTURAL ECONOMY.—*Corn, Cassave, and Bananas.* By H. PERRINE.

MR. FLEET.—You have said that in the United States we have not yet learned the immensely productive power of one perfectly cultivated acre.

I reply, that I hope the time will never arrive when the American cultivator shall be under the necessity of extracting the greatest possible produce of any single vegetable from the least possible ground, with a greater proportionate share of capital or labor. The great object of American Vegeculture is to obtain the greatest value for the least labor and capital, and the consequent great happiness of our agricultural labors is the relatively high price of their industry, which I devoutly desire may never be diminished by imported systems of European agriculture. The dearness of ground, and the cheapness of labor, combine to make the European landlord desirous of obtaining the greatest possible number of roots or of grains from the least possible number of perches or of acres; while the cheapness of land, and the dearness of labor, combine to render the American farmer desirous of obtaining the greatest number of roots or of grains with the least possible number of laborers or of dollars. Nevertheless, *an economy of surface* may, in many instances, be profitably observed by even the American laboring landlords. His orchard of apple or cherry trees *is* also his meadow or his corn-field, and *may be* also at the same moment his vineyard, or his hop plantation. His hop or his grape vines may be so trained as to augment instead of diminish the quantity and quality of the fruit on the trees which sustain them; and the ground cultivated in maize between them, may have its intervals covered with beans, pumpkins, &c., with a diminution instead of an increase of the labor requisite to eradicate the gramineous weeds which detract nourishment from the kindred corn. Even the indolent Indians of the torrid zone have discovered that many alimentary roots and fruits of *different natural families* of vegetables may be obtained from the same field at the same time, without impediment to the growth of each other, and with the advantage of occupying the place of the otherwise natural and noxious weeds. Thus the *Euphorbiaceous* Jatropha Manchot being planted, (by simply inserting obliquely short pieces of the stem,) when the *external bud* has shot up 8 or 10 inches into the *air*, the *interred buds* having then begun to branch under ground into cassave roots, the *gramineous* zeamays is next deposited in alternate *holes*, not *hills;* and then between both the cassave and the corn are sown the *seeds* of the *cucurbitaceous* melons, watermelons, pumpkins, squashes, and cucumbers; of the *leguminous* phaseolus vulgaris, and other *beans* valued, as with us, for the esculent contents of the pods,—besides those of the *jicamas*, whose principal value resides in their *roots*, (like those of our Phaseolus or Apros tuberosa,) of which there are three kinds, and one at least supposed to be a Dolichos bulbosa; and moreover, the roots of the *convolvulaceous* sweet potatoe, and of the *dioscoreus* yam. As they all contribute to form a refreshing shade for the soil, in the whole surface not occupied by the stalks of the cassave plant and of the Indian corn, and at the same time impede the growth of spontaneous weeds, we have thus demonstrated to us, by ages of experience, among the most indolent and ignorant people of the world, a most important practical lesson of American vegecultural economy—*the greatest production with the least toil.*

H. PERRINE.

AMERICAN EDUCATION.—We copy the following from the Baltimore American, as containing what we deem sound views on education for American young gentlemen. No class of our citizens have a more direct or important interest in a right understanding of this subject, than the farmers of our land.

A question which it seems to us involves the whole subject of what is called a *classical* education, is this—Is the process of instruction in the ancient languages the best means of attaining the end sought? Supposing a youth at the completion of his academic course to be proficient in Greek and Latin—has the best been done that could be done for him by artificial aid to enable him to approach, as nearly as his natural powers will admit of, to the excellence of Sophocles and Thucydides, Cicero and Tacitus as writers and thinkers? Without other investigation, we give to this question a pointed negative merely from referring to the history of these great models themselves. The course of instruction which led them to such towering eminence was directly the reverse of that pursued by their modern worshippers.—Let us then, instead of studying their words, imitate the process which put them in a condition to utter them. Thus we should be their worthy pupils. These great men became what they were, by applying their faculties to things and events around them. Their source of reflection were present deeds—not past histories; their inlets to others' thoughts were their ears, attentive to living speech—not their eyes intent upon dead languages. We, too, to be sure, are under the influence of the present in the same degee that the ancients were, and hear as much of our own language; but the present, and our mother tongue are not made the subjects of systematic instruction—the material with which and through which the young mind is disciplined and developed; and thence we lose the aid of the only firm fulcrum for the mighty lever of education.

We object not to the study of Greek and Latin—far from it. But let them be studied in their natural order, and by those only who can benefit by the study—that is, by those who, in common with all, having received fundamental tuition in present institutions and events and in their native tongue, discover the capacity and disposition to follow the minds of the great masters in other literatures, and to enrich and polish through them their natural resources. In this way, they will learn far more, even of ancient literature, than by the present defective and perverted system; and the money and labor and precious time of others, who have no talent for learning languages, or no qualities to imbibe the spirit of classical works, will not be thrown away as it now is utterly, but be profitably employed.

A singular accident occurred not long since to a bullock, the property of a gentleman residing near Shrewsbury. The animal was feeding on the top of a small mound of earth, on which some trees were growing, when, feeling inclined to browse on the lichen which encircled the tree, he contrived to get his head between two of the branches. Suddenly the earth under his feet gave away, his horns were caught in the fork of the tree, and, when he was discovered, he was found to have expired in this extraordinary manner, having in his struggles dispersed the earth from under his feet, and was hanging in the air outstretched and lifeless.

Be not too brief in conversation, lest you be not understood; nor too diffuse, lest you be troublesome.

No man is free who does not command himself.

THE BREEDER & MANAGER.

[From Dixon's Live Stock and Cattle Manager.]

HEREFORDSHIRE.

It has been conceived, that the Herefordshire variety, which at present is a mixed breed, was originally of the Devonshire sort; and that "its great size is probably derived from an intercopulation with the heaviest of the Welch or Shropshire breeds."

The characteristics of this variety are, the countenance pleasant, cheerful, and open; the forehead broad; eye full and lively; horns bright, taper, and spreading; head small; chop lean; neck long and tapering; chest deep; bosom broad, and projecting forward; shoulder bone thin, flat, no way protuberant in bone, but full and mellow in flesh; chest full; loin broad; hips standing wide and level with the spine; quarters long and wide at the neck; rump even with the general level of the back, not drooping, nor standing out and sharp above the quarters; tail slender and neatly haired; barrel round and roomy, the carcase throughout deep and well spread; ribs broad, standing close and flat on the outer surface, forming a smooth even barrel, the hindmost large and of full length; round bone, small, snug, not prominent; thigh clean and regularly tapering; legs upright and short; bone below the knee and hough, small; feet of middle size; cod and twist round and full; flank large; flesh every where mellow, soft, yielding pleasantly to the touch, especially on the chine, the shoulder, and the ribs; hide mellow, supple, of a middle thickness, and loose on the nache and huckle; coat neatly haired, bright, and silky, color a middle red, and a bald face.

It is equal if not superior to the Devon and Sussex kind, in disposition for breeding or fattening, and in fitness for working is by no means inferior to either of them. The beasts are larger and more weighty, though equally complete in their shape or make, mostly more wide and full over their shoulders or chines, as well as breasts or briskets, and likewise in the hind parts of the rumps.

In the true sort of this variety, no projecting bone in the point of the shoulder is met with, which, in some others, forms almost a shelf, against which the collar rests; but, on the contrary, the shoulder tapers off; there is a great breadth before, and the hind quarters are equally weighty; the tail is not set up high; there is a great distance from the point of the rump to the hip-bone; the twist full, broad, and soft; the thigh of the fore legs, to the pastern joint, tapering and full, but thin below the joint, the horn shoots sideways a little, and then turns up thin and tapering; feeling very well; mellow on the rump, ribs, and hip-bone: quality of the meat not hard, but fine as well as fat; little coarse flesh about them; and a great disposition to marble with fat. Experiment has shown that the favorable disposition to take on fat in these large cattle is such, that they will become fat sooner than either of the other two sorts. Some think this variety of cattle are better formed for fattening than working; that they are large boned, thick legged, quite unlike the above sorts, and, consequently, that they are slower in their motions; but the trials that have been made of these beasts in the same teams, in ploughing and carting, with many of each of the other sorts, have fully proved the superiority of this variety; though on the average, they are found to outweigh the latter of the above sorts. In common, the cattle of this variety are more complete in their form, their several parts brought up more to a level, and the intervening spaces are more perfectly filled than in the other sorts. A middle sized ox of such a shape, free from any sort of hardness of flesh, with legs devoid of gumminess, from knee to hock downwards, and with clean bone and sinew, will, it is supposed, be the fittest for work, and the most generally saleable in the fat state.

The Herefordshire, as well as North Devon, varieties of this breed are a very superior sort of stock, both for the purpose of labor and for that of grazing, being not only clean, strong, and well made, but affording quick proof under the feeding system. The females in the Herefordshire sort have been found to fatten better than any other kind at three years old, except the spayed heifers of Norfolk. The oxen, when six years old, and fattened, will in general weigh from 60 to 100 stones, of fourteen pounds, the fore quarters being generally the heaviest. Being steady and active, as well as capable of great exertion in harness, they are peculiarly adapted to the purposes of the team: they may be worked from three to five or six years old before they are fattened.

It has been remarked, that of late years considerable coarseness of bone has distinguished even the best Hereford cattle; a circumstance which is of trifling importance, as they have proved themselves of such superior excellence that no possible cross could in any way improve them.—Breeders of this variety should reflect on the importance of preserving the old blood in a state of as great purity as possible, as they possess the most valuable breed of cattle in the kingdom for some purposes, and have hitherto been very judicious and fortunate in nicely blending the elements of such a variety; but they ought not to forget that by further mingling and crossing with inferior stock, they may, by degrees, recede from the great eminence they have attained. Should, however, a cross become really necessary, from too much coarseness or over-size, the Devonshire or Norman bulls in such cases are to be selected.

The distinguishing qualities of Herefordshire oxen are the great produce of beef, quick feeding in proportion to their growth and size, and the union of strength and speed in labor. With respect to the most profitable return in quantity of beef, it may be presumed, no breed in England can stand in competition with this, and they have been accordingly the most successful at the annual prize shows. They also command the first price alive or dead.

Though the short horns are of larger size, they do not commonly feed so quickly as the Herefordshire sort, which vary very conveniently as to size, but require to be well kept. They are most powerful draught oxen, being speedy enough for any work, either in the plough or cart, and generally walk sufficiently quick. They are docile and tractable, and if trained with temper and kindness, will drive to an inch with reins: but "as milkers, they have nothing particular to boast."

This is a sort of neat cattle which partakes much of the mixed nature of the middle, long, and short-horned kinds; but in which the horns are generally wider, and do not rise upwards so much as in the Devonshire and Sussex cattle. They have, for the most part, white faces, and throats, with some white on other parts, but their prevailing color is chiefly a dark red or brown, there being few of any other color. Their appearance denotes strength and utility, but is not remarkably showy. In the hide there is a sort of medium between the thick and thin kinds. They take stall feeding better than those with thick hides, but not equal to those with thin ones. They succeed better in moist situations and exposures than the latter, but not so well as the former. From their properties and size, they require rich and good keep.

They have a good form for labor of the more heavy kind, but have less activity than the Devons, and perhaps some other sorts. They are short in the leg, and somewhat so in the length of the whole body; and have more bone than some finer sorts. They have a weighty, fine-grained, well-marbled flesh, and a greater regularity in the mixed proportions of fat and lean than is the case in some other sorts; the chine is somewhat raised near the shoulders, but with sufficient breadth, which causes it to be thick and heavy. They are round in the hucks, with good width from each other, and sufficiently laid over with fat. The rump part has a good form, and the thigh is properly heavy. When killed at an advanced age, however, they die patchy in their fat.

The cows are not valuable as milkers in any great degree, being rarely found in use for that purpose; but the oxen are well suited to and in high estimation for the grazier; the breed may therefore be considered greatly useful.

The oxen appear to be in perfection at about five years old.

This sort of cattle are larger than any other kind, with the exception of the Yorkshire short-horns.

The largest kind are of the weight of from about 980 to 1400 lbs.

The cows, from about 700 to 980 lbs.

It has been imagined that "that the old Gloucestershire reds and browns were middle-horned, showing blood, and resembling, in a great degree, the South Devons, but of a more square and substantial form. They are supposed to have been a mixed breed which showed much Welch blood, and were, it may be presumed, more apt to fatten than milk, since they have given way to the long-horned sort in that dairy country. It would be difficult 'now' to find any genuine specimens of this variety."

The Kentish Homebreds, which are raised from dairy heifers, are also, considered to be, of a mixed breed, the Sussex generally forming the base, crossed with other proper sorts. It is noticed that a variety is thus raised of excellent butter cows, of a small size; and it is suggested to the breeders of that district, whether it may not be worth while to establish and render the breed permanent.

We must not contradict, but instruct him that contradicts us; for a madman is not cured by another running mad also.

MILCH COWS.

In answer to queries put by the Agricultural Society of Lower Canada to Sir John Sinclair.

Cows sprung from the same parents, and reared and fed together, will often vary considerable in the quantity of milk they yield.—Cows give less milk when young, or when they are too old, than they do from four to eight years of their age. Cows that are lean give less milk, and that of an inferior quality, than the same cows will give when they are in good habit of body. Cows generally give more milk for two or three months after calving than they do afterwards.

The quantity of butter yielded by cows, depends more on the food given them, than on any particularity of the breed of cattle; and the quality of the butter is greatly influenced by the mode of feeding, and still more by the manner in which the butter is manufactured. Cows that browze on natural pasture, or what is called old turf, do not yield so much milk as the same cows would give when fed on clover, turnips, cabbages, and new herbage, but the milk of the former is of better quality, and yields more and richer butter, from any given quantity of milk, than that of cows fed on clover, &c. Some individual cows of every breed give richer milk, and of course more butter in proportion to their milk, than other cows of the same breed, and when reared and fed in the same manner. Milk, as it comes from the cows, consists of oily matter, from which butter is made, *lactic* matter, which forms cheese, and *serum* or whey; and the milk of particular cows of every breed differs considerably in the proportions it contains of these respective substances. But it is doubtful if any particular breed can be pointed out, which uniformly yield more butter than any of the other breeds, except in so far as they yield more milk, or are influenced by climate, the mode of feeding, &c. Much butter, and that of a superior quality, is made in Holland, and particularly in the Province of Freiseland. This seems to proceed from the cattle being fed on meadows where the herbage is of natural growth, and very rich. The cows of Holland give less milk in proportion to their size, than the generality of the Scotch dairy cows; but the milk of the Dutch cows is richer than the other. In Holland the milk is not allowed to stand more than 18 to 24 hours, to cast up cream, while in Scotland it stands double those periods. The consequence is, that nothing but the richest and best cream, which always rises first, is made into butter in Holland; while in Scotland, the inferior cream, which makes inferior butter, is collected and churned with the other. And, above all things, the great attention paid to cleanliness in Holland has a powerful effect upon the quality in their butter.

A cow, kept by Wm. Cramp of Lewis, in the county of Sussex, is mentioned in the fifth and sixth volumes of the communications to the Board of Agriculture, as having yielded, in the year 1805, 540 pounds of butter, in 1807 she gave 675 pounds, and in 1808 the same cow gave 466 pounds, avoirdupois of butter. The Secretary to the Board of Agriculture mentioned a cow kept by the Rev. Mr. Hackett, of Beckingham, near Newark, that yielded nineteen pounds, avoirdupois, of butter in one week. But he added, that six, seven, or eight pounds per week, were the common returns of the cows in that part of England.

Quebec Mercury.

ON HARNESSING DRAUGHT HORSES.

[From "Bubbles from the Brumens [Medical Springs] of Nassau.]

* * * * Many years have elapsed, since I first observed that, somehow or other, the horses on the continent manage to pull a heavy carriage up a steep hill, or even along a dead level, with greater ease to themselves than our English horses. If any unprejudiced person would only attentively remark with what little apparent fatigue three small, ill-conditioned horses will draw, not only his own carriage, but very often that huge, overgrown vehicle the French *Diligence*, or the German *Eil-wagen*, I think he would agree with me; but the whole equipment is so unsightly—the rope harness is so rude—the horses without blinkers look so wild—there is so much bluster and noise in the postillion—that, far from paying any compliment to the turn-out, one is very much disposed at once to condemn the whole thing, and, not caring a straw whether such horses be fatigued or not, to make no other remark than that, in England, one should have travelled at nearly twice the rate with one tenth of the noise. But neither the rate nor the noise is the point—our superiority in the former and our inferiority in the latter cannot be doubted. The thing to account for, is, how such small weak horses, do actually manage to draw a heavy carriage up hill with so much ease to themselves. Now, in English, French, and German harness, there exists, as it were, three degrees of comparison as to the manner in which the head of the horse is treated; for, in England, it is elevated or borne up, by what is called the bearing-rein—in France, it is left as nature placed it (there being to common French harness no bearing-rein)—and in Germany, the head is tied down to the lower extremity of the collar, or else the collar is so made that the animal is by it deprived of the power of raising his head. Now passing over, for a moment, the French method, which is in fact, the state of nature, let us for a moment consider which is better—to bear a horse's head *up* or to pull it *downwards*, as in Germany.

"In a state of nature, the wild horse, as every body knows, has two distinct gaits, or attitudes. If a man, or any still wilder beast, come suddenly upon him, up goes his head; and as he first stalks and then trots gently away—with ears erect, snorting with his nose, and proudly snuffing up the air, as if exulting in his freedom—as one fore leg darts before the other. We have before us a picture of doubt, astonishment, and hesitation, all of which feelings seem to rein him like a troop-horse, on his haunches; but attempt to pursue him, and the moment he defies you—the moment, determining to escape, he shakes his head, and lays himself to his work—how completely does he alter his attitude!—That instant down goes his head, and from his ears to the tip of his tail there is in his vertebæ an undulating action which seems to propel him, which works him along, and which, it is evident, you could not deprive him of without materially diminishing his speed. Now, in harness, the horse has naturally the same two gaits or attitudes, and it is quite true that he can start away with a carriage either in the one or the other; but the means by which he succeeds in this effort, the physical powers which he calls into action, are essentially different; in the one case he works by his muscles, and in the other by his own dead, or rather living, weight. In order to grind corn, if any man were to erect a steam engine over a fine strong running stream, we should all say to him, "Why do you not allow your wheel to be turned by cold water instead of hot? Why do you not avail yourself of the *weight* of the water, instead of expending your capital in converting it into the power of steam? In short, why do you not use the simple resource which nature has presented ready made to your hand?" In the same way, the German might say to us, "We acknowledge a horse can drag a carriage by the power of his muscles, but why do you not allow him to drag it by his weight?"

Let any one observe a pair of English post-horses dragging a heavy weight up a hill, and he will at once see that the poor creatures are working by their muscles, and that it is by sheer strength that the resistance is overcome; but how can it be otherwise?—their heads are higher than nature intended them to be even in *walking* in a state of liberty, carrying no weight but themselves; the balance of their bodies is, therefore, absolutely turned *against*, instead of leaning in favor of, their draught; and if my reader will but pass his hands down the back sinews of our stage-coach or post-chaise horses, he will soon feel (though not so keenly as they do) what is the cruel and fatal consequence. It is true, that, in ascending a very steep hill, an English postillion will occasionally unhook his bearing-reins; but the jaded creatures, trained for years to work in a false attitude, cannot in one moment get themselves into the scientific position which the German horses are habitually encouraged to adopt. Besides this, we are so sharp with our horses—we keep them so constantly on the *qui vive*, or, as we term it, in hand, that we are always driving them from the use of their weight to the application of their sinews.—That the figure and attitude of a horse working by his sinews are infinitely prouder than when he is working by his weight—(there may exist, however, false pride among horses as well as men)—I most readily admit; and, therefore, for carriages of luxury, where the weight bears little proportion to the power of the noble animals employed, I acknowledge that the sinews are more than sufficient; but to bear up the head of a poor horse at plough, or any other slow heavy work, is, I conceive, a barbarous error, which ought not to be persisted in.

MANNER OF SHOEING HORSES IN GERMANY.

[From the same.]

In passing the shop of a blacksmith, who lived opposite to the Goldene Kette, the manner in which he tackled and shod a vicious horse always amused me. On the outside wall of the house, two rings were firmly fixed; to one of which the head of the patient was lashed close to the ground; the hind foot to be shod, stretched out to the utmost extent of the leg, was then secured to the other ring about five feet high, by a cord which

passed through a cloven hitch, fixed to the root of the poor creature's tail.

The hind foot was consequently very much higher than the head; indeed it was so exalted, and pulled so heavily at the tail, that the animal seemed to be quite anxious to keep his other foot on *terra firma*. With one hoof in the heavens, it did not suit him to kick; with his nose pointed to the infernal regions he could not conveniently rear, and as the devil himself was apparently pulling his tail, the horse at last gave up the point, and quietly submitted to be shod.

THE GARDENER.

[From the Florist's Manual.]

CULTIVATION OF FLOWERS WITH BULBOUS ROOTS.—Bulbous roots should, in general, be placed in a light, rich soil, mixed with a tolerable proportion of sea-sand. The compost commonly used is one-third fine sand, one-sixth rich loam, one-third stable manure, and one-sixth leaves of trees. The two last named articles are to be well rotted, and at least two years old; the beds should be formed two feet deep, being raised four or six inches above the garden, to turn off the rain; the best time for planting bulbs is in October or November, though it will do if delayed until the first of December.

The distance at which Hyancinths should be placed from each other is about six inches; the bulb should be placed in fine sea-sand, and covered with it; after they are thus planted, the bed should be carefully covered with earth four inches in depth; when winter sets in, or about the middle of December, cover these beds with straw, sea-weed or leaves four or five inches deep; a part of this ought to be removed, however, about the middle of February, and the remainder during the month of March—If there be too much protection the bulbs will be injured.

When these plants blossom, their bells may be supported by small sticks; they should be protected from heavy rains and an intense vertical sun—When the blossoms are faded and the flowering season is over, the flower-stems should be cut off; the buds snould be left, until the leaves are nearly dry, when the bulbs are to be taken up and the leaves cut off, half an inch from the top of the bulb—they are then replaced (sideways) with the fibres on in the earth, and again covered with it; they should there be allowed to remain and gradually dry for a month, and then be taken up, cleared from the earth and fibres, and each bulb wrapped in a sepaarte paper, and kept dry, or packed in dry sand.

Should the flowers be desired to decorate the parlour in the winter, they ought to be planted in September; they should be placed in deep, narrow pots, six inches in diameter at the top, and about one-third deeper than common flower-pots; the bulb should be just covered with the kind of soil before described; the watering should be from the top, but the pots may be allowed, twice a week, to stand in saucers filled with soft water; they ought to have as much sun and air as possible—they should never, however, be allowed to feel the direct influence of fire; when the plants begin to blossom, the earth may be kept constantly saturated with moisture; the bulbs may be preserved, when they have done blossoming, as before directed.

The Single Hyacinth is generally preferable to the double, for early flowering; many of them, are two or three weeks sooner in bloom—their flowers are more numerous and brilliant than those of the double.

Tulips are hardier than Hyacinths; they are generally planted three or four inches apart, and covered with earth two or three inches deep.

The Polyanthus Narcissus, is among the most delicate and tender of bulbs; these bulbs should be very carefully protected from the frost; they may be planted six or eight inches deep, and about eight inches apart from each other; they ought to be taken up soon after blossoming, otherwise they are liable to suffer during the winter.

The Ranunculus, Anemone, Oxalis, and Dogstooth Violet, should be planted at the depth of one inch; the bulbous Iris, Crocus, Arum, Small Fritillaria, Tiger-flower, Gladiolus, and Snowdrop, two inches—Tulip, double Narcissus, Jonquil, Colchicum, and Snow-flake, three inches; Hyacinth, Amaryllis, Martagon, and other large Lilies, and Pæonies, four inches; the Crown Imperial, and Polyanthus Narcissus, five inches.

In making the estimate of these depths, admeasurement should always be taken from the top of the bulb; the rows should be eight or ten inches apart, and the roots about six or seven distant from each other, varying with the size of the flower; the bulbous roots most frequently selected for parlour flowers, in winter, are the Roman Narcissus, double Jonquille, Polyanthus, Narcissus, double Narcissus, Crocus, and single Hyacinths; some of the earliest double Hyacinths are however sometimes selected, although they blossom some time later than the single.

Hyacinths intended for winter, should be placed in glasses about the middle of November; the glasses should be previously filled with pure water; the bottom of the bulb, when placed in the glass, may just touch the water; when thus situated, they are to be placed, for the first ten days, in a dark room, to promote the shooting of tfie roots; they then must be exposed to the light and sun as much as possible; although they will blossom without the influence of the sun, the colours of the flowers will be greatly inferior, should they bloom in the shade.

The water, when it becomes impure, should be changed. The roots should be taken from the glasses, and their fibres rinsed in clean water, and the glasses well washed inside. Great care must be taken that the water in the glasses be not allowed to freeze, as it bursts the glasses and bestroys the roots. Soft, clear rain water is preferable for such roots. Other pure water will, however, answer.

Nosegays when they have been kept for a considerable time, may often be, in a degree, restored in this way, by a change of the water in the glasses, in which their ends are inserted. They are benefitted by this change on the same principle as bulbous roots. Flowers almost dry, may sometimes be temporarily restored, by covering them with a glass bell or cup, or substituting warm water instead of cold.

The only advantage gained by taking up bulbs after blooming, (Tulips excepted) is, either to divide the roots, when too numerous, or to renew a worn-out soil. Nither of these can occur oftener than once in three or four years.

Bulbs are subterranean organs somewhat analogous to buds. They usually have numerous fibres or radicles attached to their inferior surfaces. Though they do not in all respects seem to belong to roots, they are usually regarded, and described as such.

Three varieties are commonly enumerated. 1st. The *scaly* bulb, as that of the Lily. 2d. The *tunicated* or *coated*, as that of the Onion. 3d. The *solid*, as that of the Crocus or English Saffron.

Bulbs, like buds, enclose the embryo of the future plant, and protect it until the period of its evolution arrives. In this respect they perform the office of buds. Many of them are composed of concentric scales, nearly allied to those of the buds which secure the tender leaves and flowers of northern regions from the rigors of winter, to which they would otherwise be exposed.

They also bear some analogy to the tuberous root, whether we consider them as buds or roots, the plants to which they are attached will always be regarded with peculiar interest, as among the most splendid ornaments of our gardens.

These plants are often among the earliest harbingers of spring, embracing the Snowdrop, Lily, Tulip, Hyacinth, and about 40 other beautifully flowering plants.

We cannot fail to observe, while examining the curious organization of different roots, with what apparent care the plants of another year are protected, and the species secured against the various chances of destruction.

PLANTING FRUIT TREES.

By an experienced writer in the Ohio Farmer.

The tree to be planted should be as young as circumstances will admit. The best season for planting is just when the leaves begin to turn yellow in the fall—the spring will answer if done very early; the ground being prepared and the tree taken up, prune the roots with a sharp knife, so as to leave none over a foot long; and if any have torn off nearer to the stem, prune the part so that no bruises or ragged parts remain, cut off all the fibres close to the roots, for they never live, but mould, and do a material injury; if they be cut off their place is quickly supplied with others; dig the hole twice as big, and one foot deeper, than the roots actually need for room; have fine earth and a very fine rich mould, mixed together; lay some of this one foot deep at the bottom of the hole; place the roots upon this in their natural order, and hold the tree perfectly straight, while you put sifted earth in the roots, move the tree different ways and give it a gentle lift and shake, so that the fine earth may find its way among the smallest roots, filling up the least cavity; every root should be pressed by the earth that is thrown in. When you have covered all the roots with the sifted earth, and have found that the tree is planted just as it originally stood, allowing four inches for it to settle; fill up the rest of the hole with common earth, and when you have nearly filled it, tread lightly on the dirt, then fill the remainder of the hole, leaving the top as light and

smooth as possible; use no water, it sinks rapidly down, makes cavities among the roots, lets in air; the roots will mould and canker, and the tree often die.

If the tree be planted early in October, it will have struck out roots a number of inches long before winter sets in, and this must be the best time for doing the business. They have the fall and winter to become perfectly settled, and in spring they have nothing to do but meet the genial rays of the sun, and to grow. The roots should be out of ground as short a time as possible, and if the roots become partially dry, soak them a few hours in soft water.

If the tree be for an orchard, it should be five or six feet high, unless cattle can be kept out; and each one should be kept steady by a stake, for if they be moved about by the wind, the roots become loose and the tree injured—if the trees be very short they will require no stake. They ought to be planted the second year after budding or grafting. If the tree be planted out in the fall, the head should be shortened down in the spring. If you plant in the spring, do it as early as possible, but the ground must be dry on the top when you plant, and as soon as the buds begin to swell, shorten the head. After a spring planting, guard against the drought, by laying small stones round the tree, to the distance of two feet from the centre. As it respects the distance of planting, this depends upon the different kinds of fruit, as some need more distance than others.

MISCELLANEOUS.

GEOLOGICAL TREAT.

Extract of a letter from a female correspondent of the Portsmouth Journal, at Lowell, Massachusetts.

I have just returned from an excursion which was been an intellectual feast. At the place where the rocks have been dug out for the rail road, there is one eminence, for the distance of a hundred yards, where the ledge is fifty feet deep —and from these rocks are taken some of the finest specimens for the contemplation of the Geologist. Professor SILLIMAN has been lecturing here on this science, and has led the minds of those who are interested very much into this channel.

His theory is, that there are volcanic fires in the centre of the earth which are continually throwing up rocks—that their natural position is horizontal by the grain, but are thrown perpendicular as they are found by this ledge—the veins of different sorts of stone running in that way through this ledge, gives some evidence of the truth of this theory, and presents a scene to the lover of the science of Geology, rich to behold,—which of itself the learned lecturer pronounced as worth all the trouble of a journey from Connecticut. Professor S. took out parties of gentlemen and ladies with him to this place, with their bags and hammers, to collect specimens, and there enforce his arguments.—This rendered his lectures far more interesting than they could have been in any other place. Among the specimens I have collected are Quartz, Feldspar, Mica, or isinglass, with garnets interspersed. Professor S. by his theory very satisfactorily accounts for the formation of the beds of coal which are dug out of the earth.

The light of science is diffusing her beams upon us that we may see more clearly the wonderful works of our Creator, and the wisdom with which he has made them all—and still farther, that he bestows on man the intellectual power whereby he may make three discoveries. Professor Silliman was very much caressed and had many presents while here. One gave him cloth for a suit of clothes—another a twenty dollar hearth-rug,—a third an india-rubder cushion, filled with air—thus, not only treating him with some of the grandest specimens of the works of nature, but with some of the finest works of art.

ON DOMESTIC ECONOMY.

Extract from the Auto-Biography of Sir Egerton Brydges.

"I married at the early age of twenty-two—much too early—without an income adequate to my habits, unless with great economy—and I had no economy. I could not sift bills, cast up accounts, examine prices, and make bargains.—There was, therefore, every kind of mismanagement; and I soon became involved. But I had no personal expenses; I neither cared for dress, nor equipages, nor out door amusements, nor society. If I was left in quiet with my books and my pen, I was content. But quiet was never my destiny. The first involvement multiplies itself at every move. It destroys the freedom of the intellect and the heart; and drives me into a state of mistiness, which seeks extrication by the very means which augment it. It encourages self-delusions for the sake of momentary peace; and, like inebriety, buys oblivion at the expense of quickly succeeding pain and sickness. The creditor, who thinks himself sure of his debt at last, delights in giving credit, because he has his debtor at his mercy, makes his own usurious terms with him, and gorges on his blood. He who lives on credit does not dare examine bills; and the creditor charges according to the degree of his own wide conscience. Thus, there is a difference of at least, cent. per cent. in every article the debtor consumes; and two thousand pounds a year with him, will not go so far as one in the hands of him who pays ready money, and looks to his accounts.

It is true, that there are various causes for excess of expenditure by an individual, besides carelessness. Perhaps vanity, and a false notion of the character of mankind, is the first. A mind not sound is apt to value others according to their station and riches; and as there is a natural passion in mankind to be well estimated, they are thus impelled to put on outward appearances, which may induce the belief that they possess a consideration and wealth which do not belong to them. The mind that cannot purify itself from these vaporous delusions, must be unhappy either way.—If it encounters superior fortune and establishment, while it puts on no appearance beyond its own humbler state, it either feels degraded, servile, and mortified, or is roused into anger and malignity. On the other hand, a false assumption of consequence, by means of an expenditure which cannot be afforded, is followed by a degradation infinitely worse; because, in addition to the intervening pain by which it is supported, the actual inferiority of rank and money becomes lower in a course of time by the struggle. Right thinking, therefore, and dignity of sentiment on these important subjects, which occur every day of our lives, are absolutely necessary to our moral well being.

Neither ostentatious displays, nor luxuries, increase our real enjoyments; and if we cannot afford them, we are relieved from the mortifications they keep off at far too high a price. It is rarely that they do keep off mortification, even for a time; for the world is too sharp-sighted not to detect false pretensions and show which cannot be prudently supported.

Mankind always take the ill-natured side, and confound the expenditure of carelessness and erroneous calculation with the expenditure of vanity. There is nothing, therefore, more unfortunate, from whatever cause it proceeds, than excess of expenditure beyond income. The greater part of the harpies of society live and gorge themselves by taking advantage of this imprudence. Half the population of London live upon it; three-fourths of the ravenous lawyers live upon it; all sorts of agents live upon it; and half the demoralization of society is generated by it."

VORACITY OF RATS.—The Aberdeen Herald relates the following remarkable instance of the grey or Norwegian rat. A farmer in the vicinity of Banff, on going out to look at his pigs, found the young of a sow which had recently littered, with their throats gnawed through and their bodies partly eaten, and some of them dragged into the holes of the rats, nearly a dozen of which ferocious animals were busily engaged in devouring the young pigs.

IMMEDIATE RELIEF OF THE TOOTHACHE.—Dr. Ryan observes, that the application of the pure nitric acid to a carious tooth procures almost immediate relief of toothache and faceache, without producing the slightest pain. The acid must be applied to every part of the decayed surface, and care taken not to suffer it to touch the gum, cheek, lips, or apparel. The mouth should be washed after the application with tepid water. It is much easier to touch the teeth in the lower than the upper jaw; but I have never known a single instance in which the acid was fairly tried and completely applied to the decayed surface, without procuring almost immediate relief, and without any pain. When the upper teeth are diseased, it is very difficult to touch the nerve in a small opening, and this is the cause of failure.—The remedy may be employed, however delicate the patient,—even to children.—*Med. & Surg. Jour.*

Mildness governs more than anger.

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BALTIMORE PRODUCE MARKET.

☞ *These Prices are carefully corrected every* MONDAY.

	PER.	FROM	TO
BRANDY, Apple,	gallon.	$0 36	$—
Peach,	"	75	—
BEANS, white field,	bushel.	—	—
BEEF, on the hoof,	100lbs.	4 00	5 00
CORN, yellow,	bushel.	70	71
White,	"	70	71
COTTON, Virginia,	pound.	12	14
North Carolina,	"	12	14
Upland,	"	14	16
FEATHERS,	pound.	35	38
FLAXSEED,	bushel.	1 37	1 50
FLOUR—Best white wheat family,	barrel.	6 50	7 00
Do. do. baker's	"	5 75	6 25
Do. do. Superfine,	"	5 00	5 25
Super Howard street,	"	5 12	5 25
" " wagon price,	"	5 00	5 18
City Mills, extra,	"	5 00	5 25
Do.	"	4 85	4 87
Susquehanna,	"	5 25	—
Rye,	"	—	—
GRASS SEEDS, red Clover,	bushel.	5 00	5 50
Timothy (herds of the north)	"	3 00	3 50
Orchard,	"	3 00	3 50
Tall meadow Oat,	"	2 25	2 50
Herds, or red top,	"	1 25	—
HAY, in bulk,	ton.	—	17 00
Pressed,	100 lbs	60	65
HEMP, country, dew rotted,	pound.	6	7
" water rotted,	"	7	8
LIME,	bushel.	30	33
MUSTARD SEED, Foreign,	"	4 50	5 00
Domestic,	"	5 00	6 00
OATS,	"	31	35
OIL, linseed,	gallon.	—	92
Castor	"	1 50	1 75
PEAS, red eye,	bushel.	—	—
Black eye,	"	1 00	—
Lady,	do	—	—
PLASTER PARIS, in the stone,	ton.	2 81	2 87
Ground,	barrel.	1 37	—
PALMA CHRISTA BEAN,	bushel.	1 50	—
RAGS,	pound.	3	4
RYE,	bushel.	65	67
TOBACCO, crop, common,	100 lbs	3 75	5 00
" brown and red,	"	5 00	7 00
" fine red,	"	7 00	9 00
" wrappery, suitable for segars,	"	6 00	12 00
" yellow and red,	"	8 00	12 00
" yellow,	"	13 00	17 00
" fine yellow,	"	15 00	25 00
Seconds, as in quality,	"	3 50	5 00
" ground leaf,	"	5 00	9 00
Virginia,	"	4 00	—
Rappahannock,	"	—	—
Kentucky,	"	4 00	9 00
WHEAT, white,	bushel.	1 05	1 12
Red,	"	1 00	1 05
WHISKEY, 1st pf. in bbls	gallon.	32	33
" in hhds	"	62	30½
" wagon price,	"	—	29
WAGON FREIGHTS, to Pittsburgh,	100 lbs	—	1 50
To Wheeling,	"	2 00	1 75
		washed.	*unwash*
WOOL, Prime & Saxon Fleeces,	pound.	50 *to* 60	24 *to* 26
Full Merino,	"	44 50	22 24
Three fourths Merino,	"	37 44	22 24
One half do.	"	33 37	21 22
Common & one fourth Meri.	"	30 33	18 20
Pulled,	"	28 31	18 20

BAKEWELL RAMS.

TWO Bakewell Rams of good size and quality, for sale by a farmer near Baltimore at $50 each. Apply to I. I. HITCHCOCK,
oc 28 American Farmer Establishment.

SEVERAL FINE JACKASSES,

FOR sale at prices from $100 to $1000.—GOOD JENNIES are wanted. Enquire of
I. I. HITCHCOCK,
Oct. 7. American Farmer Establishmen.

BALTIMORE PROVISION MARKET.

	PER.	FROM.	TO.
APPLES,	barrel.	$1 50	$2 50
BACON, hams,	pound.	11	—
Shoulders,	"	—	10
Middlings,	"	—	10
BUTTER, printed, in lbs. & half lbs.	"	25	37
Roll,	"	12	20
CIDER,	barrel.	—	—
CALVES, three to six weeks old	each.	4 00	7 00
COWS, new milch,	"	22 00	30 00
Dry,	"	9 00	12 00
CORN MEAL, for family use,	100lbs.	1 62	—
CHOP RYE,	"	1 62	—
EGGS,	dozen.	13	—
FISH, Shad, salted,	barrel.	5 50	6 50
Herrings, salted, No. 1,	"	4 75	—
Mackerel, No. 1, 2 & 3,	"	4 75	6 75
Cod, salted,	cwt.	2 62	3 00
LAMBS, alive,	each.	1 25	2 00
Slaughtered,	quart'r	31	50
LARD,	pound.	8	—
ONIONS,	bushel.	75	—
POULTRY, Fowls,	dozen.	1 75	2 00
Chickens,	"	1 75	2 00
Ducks,	"	2 00	2 25
POTATOES, Irish,	bushel.	40	56
Sweet,	peck.	19	25
VEAL, fore quarters,	pound.	7	—
Hind do.	"	8	—

ADVERTISEMENTS

FARMERS' REPOSITORY,
NO. 36 PRATT STREET,
Between Hanover and Charles street.

THE subscriber has been engaged for the last eighteen months adding improvements to his establishment, and now believes it to be equal in extent and convenience to any other establishment of the kind in the United States, and is prepared to fill any orders in his line on as reasonable terms, taking into consideration the quality of his work. It is his determination to procure the best materials, and to have the workmanship executed in the best possible manner, and to keep a general assortment of such implements of husbandry as give the most general satisfaction to farmers. It may be well here to observe, that there are constantly alterations making in Ploughs and other implements, which are no improvements, and are only calculated to give the purchaser double trouble by increasing his varieties without improvement—but all useful improvements the subscriber will continue to adopt as heretofore. I have on hand a large stock of implements, which I offer to the public, among which is my patent Cylindrical Straw Cutters, of various sizes, and prices.—These machines have been in operation 12 years, during which time I have sold nearly seven hundred of them, and I believe that no machine has ever been introduced that has given more general satisfaction. I have a large stock of Ploughs, of various kinds and sizes, wrought and cast shares, the most approved kinds of Wheat Fans, Corn Shellers, Harrows, Corn and Tobacco Cultivators; Rag Cutters, for Paper mills, Fox & Borland's Patent Threshing Machines, improved by myself, also, one of Z. Booth's Threshing Machines, with stationary horse power; Hay and Manure Forks; Tanner's Forks; Spades and Shovels; Field and Garden Hoes, Grubbing Hoes, Picks and Mattocks, Briar Hooks, Hay Knives, Casksteel Narrow and Broad Axes; common Straw Cutting Knives, &c.; and all kinds of Plough and Machine Castings, to suit Ploughs and Machines, made by me, kept constantly on hand; and all repairs done at short notice.

Also—will be kept constantly on hand, at retail, a general assortment of the Messrs. Landreth's celebrated GARDEN SEEDS—likewise, all kinds of Grass and other Fields Seeds, when they can be obtained of good quality.

A liberal discount will be made on my implements to those who purchase to sell again.

Oct. 28. 2t J. S. EASTMAN.

BULBOUS ROOTS.

HYACINTHS, Tulips and a general assortment of Bulbous Roots, suitable for the present season, for sale low at this establishment by
Oct. 28. I. I. HITCHCOCK.

BLOODED CATTLE.

ONE thorough bred Bull and one Heifer of the improved Durham S H. breed, whose pedigree as well as appearance prove them to be valuable animals, one year old last Spring, may be had for two hundred and fifty dollars, if taken immediately. Also, several Bulls and one Heifer of alloyed blood, for sale *very low*, if immediately applied for at this establishment. oct 28

GRAPE VINES.

GRAPE VINES.—The subscriber will receive orders for VINES from Mr. Herbemont's Nursery, till the 15th of November.

For extensive cultivation in this climate there is no grape so valuable as the Herbemont. But little inferior to many esteemed foreign varieties for the table, it is equal to any of them as a Wine grape, and surpasses them in the important qualities of abundant bearing and resistance of frost.

Persons in any part of this State, the District of Columbia, and in some parts of Virginia and Pennsylvania may avail themselves of this agency.—Price in Baltimore for 1000 Vines, $100; for 500, $62 50; for 100 do $15.

Oct. 28 4t. G. FITZHUGH, Jr.

PUPPIES.

SEVERAL YOUNG POINTERS of the very best blood, will be old enough for sale, early in November. Also several young GREY HOUND sluts, from the pair sent from Europe to the president of the U. S., and by him presented to this establishment last fall.

Also one SLUT, one year old, from my grey hound slut, by a very fine imported Pointer. She appears to have the Pointer's nose and the shape and agility of the greyhound—color black. Oct. 7.

LINNÆAN GARDEN AND NURSERIES,
FLUSHING NEAR NEW YORK.

WM. PRINCE & SONS have just published their *New Catalogue with greatly reduced prices*—application therefor must be made *direct to them per mail*. Every Department of the Establishment is in the most perfect condition in regard to the accuracy and superiority of its productions—and strangers are solicited to visit it and judge for themselves. The Fruit Trees are of large size, and in the most vigorous state, suitable for Orchards where prompt bearing is desired. Among these are the fine New Flemish Pears. Ornamental Trees and Flowering Shrubs can be furnished of the largest size, worth treble the price of small ones, as several years are thus saved in embellishment. The collections of Green House Plants, and hardy Flowering plants are particularly rich and interesting. The assortments of Roses and Double Dahlias comprise all the new splendid varieties, and each collection occupies above an acre of ground. Splendid Dahlias will now be supplied at $3, $4½ and $6 per dozen—each roót a distinct named variety selected by us.—Of Bulbous Flower Roots the stock is so greatly increased, that they will be sold at very low rates.

Where a large number of trees, &c. is ordered, a discount will be made, and a credit allowed if so desired. The owners of nurseries and other venders of trees and seeds will be supplied at a liberal discount, and a convenient credit.

The assortment of garden, field and flower seeds, is exceedingly extensive, and forms a complete concentration of the choicest varieties known in Europe, and this country, all of which have been raised under our own inspection, or grown expressly for us, by our European correspondents. Their accuracy and excellence are expressly guaranteed, and *we ask no payment where the seeds do not prove exactly as represented.* Among the field seeds are the following: Perennial Ryegrass, New Italian do., Lucerne, Dutch White Clover, early Angus Oats, English Potatoe Oats, weighing 44 lbs. per bushel, Orchard Grass, tall Oats Grass, Trifolium Incarnatum, or early Crimson Clover, and 100 bushels Taylor's Forty fold Potatoe, also 50 bushels Potatoe Onions.—Venders of seeds, will be supplied at the most moderate rates possible, and at a credit to comport with their convenience.

Orders sent *direct per mail*, will have immediate dispatch, and every invoice emanating from us, has our *printed heading*, and *signature* and *no others are guaranteed*.

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